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An analysis of relationship between interpersonal communication and mass media use by foreign students in the United States

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**An analysis of relationship between interpersonal communication and
mass media use by foreign students in the United States**

by

Shu-Hua Meng

A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE

Major: Journalism and Mass Communication

Signatures have been redacted for privacy

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa
1990

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Study abroad is not only a form of "acquiring knowledge of an intellectual or technical nature outside one's own social and cultural environment" (Metraux, 1952, p. 1), it is a reciprocal process of learning and adjustment which occurs when individuals reside for educational purposes in foreign societies for a limited period of time (Smith, 1956).

Each year large numbers of students come from various countries to the United States for educational purposes. The first foreign student, Francisco de Miranda who returned home to lead the South American struggle for independence from Spain, entered Yale University in 1784. The first national survey of foreign students was made in 1922 by the Committee on Friendly Relations Among Foreign Students (Du Bois, 1956).

The number of foreign students in America increased nearly two times every ten years from the 1950s to the 1970s. Foreign student enrollment had increased from over 40,000 in 1956/57 to over 100,000 in 1966/67 and to over 200,000 in 1976/77 (Julian and Slaterry, 1978). According to the report of the Institute of International Education (1981), the number of foreign students attending American colleges or universities had risen about 253,000 from 47,000 in 1954 to more than 300,000 in 1981. Data from the Statistical Abstract of the United States of the Bureau of Census

(1989) showed that foreign student enrollment in institutions of higher education grew from 179,000 in 1979 to 350,000 in 1987.

Due to the increasing numbers of foreign students in America, the problems that foreign students are faced with in their new environment have been of interest to many researchers (e.g., Moore, 1965; Rising and Coop, 1968; Shepard, 1970; Johnson, 1971; Breuder, 1972; Moghrabi, 1972).

Newcomb (1960) indicated that individuals are conditioned by the group to which they belong. Based on his argument, to become involved in the new environment foreign students have to adjust from that to which they belong now. They have to adapt to the new socio-cultural environment (Swatdipong, 1979). Thus, foreign students do not only pursue their educational goals but also involve themselves in the daily life of America, their host country.

Lee et al. (1981) indicated that foreign students will face adjustment problems since they have little idea of the organization of institutions of higher education. Not only do they have to adjust to the American educational system, but they have to adapt to the new environment where they encounter new values, customs, and different social relationships, at least in some degree, from their own. This raises problems of foreign students' adjustment to and interaction with the new environment.

Statement of the Problem

Moore (1965) found the problems for foreign students are lack of proficiency in English, adjustment to the American culture, time required to adjust to the complexity of the situation, and adjustment to social relations. The concept of adjustment denotes "the process whereby an organism, organ, or individual entity enters into a

relationship of 'harmony' or 'equilibrium' with its environment; and the condition of having attained such a relationship" (Gould and Kolb, 1964, p. 9). The Crows (1956) pointed out that adjustment "refers to the extent to which an object fits the purpose to which it is intended "(p. 3) and suggested that "an individual's adjustment is adequate, wholesome or healthful to the extent that he has established a harmonious relationship between himself and the conditions, situations and persons who comprise his physical and social environment" (p. 4).

Why do foreign students have to adjust to the new environment when they come to America? Noury (1970) stated that:

adjustment can be viewed as the ability and willingness of foreign students to adjust to the American society in order to meet the demands of human existence (p. 16).

Wild (1955) argued that:

... human existence is transmissive. Each individual, whether he wills it or not, is constantly radiating signs to others, and receiving signs from them (p. 79).

Moreover, Carey (1975) described communication as a "transmission" view which:

is the commonest in our culture and...is defined by terms such as imparting, sending, transmitting or giving information to others. It is formed off a metaphor of geography or transportation (p. 3).

A typical definition of communication is given by Lundberg, Schrag and Larsen (1954): "Communication may be defined as the transmission of meanings through the use of symbols" (p. 360). Therefore, communication plays a very important role in human life to transmit people's thoughts, opinions, or information.

Miller and Steinberg (1975) argued that the purpose of communication in general is to increase predictability of the environment (including other people) so that the environment can be controlled and rewards achieved. Communication is the process which can serve a number of different functions and the process can somewhat differently depend on the functions (Severin and Tankard, 1979). Communication serves the functions of persuading, informing, teaching, and entertaining (Schramm and Roberts, 1971). Since different functions can be provided by a way of communication, people can become familiar with and increase predictability with their new environment. Therefore, because of foreign students' unfamiliarity with their new environment, they have to acquire information to learn something about it and adjust to it via communication.

Huseman, Lahiff and Hatfield (1976) indicated that communication can be divided into two levels: one is interpersonal communication which occurs between the individuals; the other is public communication which is the transmission of a message to a mass with verbal feedback, public speech communication, and with non-verbal feedback, mass communication via mass media. Thus, through communication, an individual is linked with the environment informationally (Kim and Ruben, 1988).

This study is an attempt to explore aspects of the relationship between interpersonal communication and mass media use by foreign students after they have come to America.

Discovering some significant factors in explaining and predicting variation in such relationships is the purpose of this study.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are summarized as follows:

1. To find out what kind of communication behaviors foreign students will engage in, either interpersonal communication with Americans/non-Americans (foreign students coming from other countries or from their own countries) or mass media use for learning about their new environment.
2. To discover whether foreign students' communication behaviors are different under different circumstances in terms of selected variables.
3. To see if there is any significant relationship between interpersonal communication with Americans and mass media use by foreign students.
4. To apply the appropriate theories to the communication behaviors of foreign students.
5. To identify some suggestions and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature and relevant research which are related to this study. The literature search is divided into three sections: (1) overview of literature on foreign students in the United States; (2) interpersonal communications with Americans among foreign students; (3) mass media exposure by foreign students.

Overview of Literature on Foreign Students in the United States

Findings of various studies revealed that foreign students faced some problems in adjusting to their new environment in America (Eubank, 1932; Newstetter, Feldstein and Newcomb, 1938; Reuter, 1941; Gittler, 1952; Selltiz et al., 1956; Morris, 1960; Du Bois, 1962). Spaulding and Flack (1976) indicated that almost twenty-five percent of these studies were focused on foreign students' attitudes and social adjustment problems. The major consideration and variables for measuring foreign students' adjustment to the host country have been dealing with their association with Americans and adapting to American social norms. However, mass media play an important role for foreign students' socialization process in adjustment to a new environment.

Students from various cultures differ in the degree to which they experience certain problems (Hull, 1978). The most important problems of different findings

appeared to be language difficulties, adjusting to a new educational system, and adjusting to social customs and norms.

Studies in a psychiatric setting provided mixed support for the view that foreign students suffer from unique culture-based adjustment problems (Nelson, 1956; Zurin and Rubin, 1967; Nickelly, Sugita and Otis, 1964; Klien et al., 1971). Klineberg (1970) concluded that "at least a temporary period of maladjustment and depression occurs so frequently as to be almost normal" (p. 46)

Studies that have asked foreign students directly about degree of difficulty they experienced in adjusting to the new environment (Jammaz, 1972; Shepard, 1970) indicated that foreign students have significant adjustment difficulties, although somewhat higher or lower difficulties were reported depending on the students' nationality and the host country involved (e.g., Political and Economic Planning, 1965; Klineberg and Hull, 1979).

The most widely studied background variables to affect the adjustment problems are nationality, status, language proficiency, age, educational level and previous cross-cultural experience. For instance, due to nationality difference, Canadians and West Europeans were consistently found to be more socially involved with U.S. nationals and to report fewer adjustment problems. Students from the Far East were least involved socially and reported the greatest number of adjustment difficulties (e.g. Forstat, 1951; Hassan, 1962; Selltiz et al., 1963; Galtung, 1965; Hegazy, 1968; Deutsch, 1970; Shepard, 1970; Hull, 1978).

Interpersonal Communication with Americans among Foreign Students

In this section, different variables will be examined which related to interpersonal communication with Americans by foreign students and which were identified by various researchers.

English Language Proficiency

Servaes (1989) argued that language is an instrument of communication and people communicate by means of a language. A Dictionary of the Social Sciences denotes "communication" by Gould and Kolb (1964) as:

A process in which an initiator emits or sends a message via some vehicle to some recipient and produces an effect (p. 111).

Thus, language is a vehicle used for people's communication. Roloff and Miller (1987) stated that interpersonal communication is a face-to-face communication with the crude beginnings of language.

With regard to the language variable, various findings support a positive relationship between language proficiency and the amount of social interaction with host nationals (Morris, 1960; Sewell and Davidsen, 1961; Shattuck, 1961; Blood and Nicholson, 1962; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1966; Deutsch, 1970).

Many researchers considered positive social interaction with host nationals a necessary condition for effective sojourner adjustment (Bennett et al., 1958; Arensberg and Niehoff, 1964; Klineberg, 1970; Brein and David, 1971). Empirical studies have tested the hypothesis that increased interaction with host nationals would lead to improved sojourner adjustment (Hassan, 1962; Hofman and Zak, 1969; Basu and Ames, 1970; Heath, 1970; Ibrahim, 1970; Chang, 1973).

Morris (1960) and Selltiz et al. (1963) reported relationships between amount of social interaction with host nationals and more general adjustment. Hull (1978) indicated that foreign students from more culturally different countries interacted less with Americans and were less well adjusted.

Cannon (1959) indicated that communication, finances, and scholastic requirements are three major problems of foreign students. Moore (1965) delineated that foreign students have problems related to proficiency in English, problems caused by differences in educational systems, problems of adjustments to the American culture, problems related to the complexity of the situation in terms of the number of adjustments required and the time allowed for making them, problems of inadequate resources, and problems of social adjustment.

Rising and Coop (1968) revealed English proficiency as the major problem for foreign students at the University of Rochester. They found that foreign students have difficulty with accommodations, transportation, privacy, American food, and shopping. Johnson (1971) supported Rising and Coop's findings; he pointed out that the most frequent problem of foreign students at the University of Tennessee is lack of proficiency in English. The same findings were also found in Florida colleges by Breuder (1972) and at the University of Nebraska by Moghrabi (1972).

Cowan (1968) reported that foreign students who are not proficient in English really face difficulties in their relationships with American students and faculty members. Gabriel's (1973) study indicated that most foreign students have difficulties in understanding lectures, writing papers, and expressing ideas due to lack of language proficiency if they have been in America less than one year. Because they lack English proficiency, it is a serious problem for foreign students to make friends with

Americans. The study of Han's (1975) at the University of Southern California identified English language skills and making American friends to be the most serious problems.

Violet Clark (1963) studied Ghanaian students at the University of Michigan during the 1959-60 academic year. She found that the major problems of Ghanaian students were in communication, discrimination, adjustment to school as well as adjustment to the United States. The major reason cited by the respondents were language and communication differences and the difficulty of adjustment to the American educational system.

The survey conducted by Watuma (1967) studied problems related to academic adjustment for a sample of Kenyan Students at Iowa State University. He found that 77.7 percent of foreign students indicated difficulties in communication specifically with colloquialisms, 65 percent indicated they had problems in social and intercultural adjustment. Nenyod (1975) pointed out in his Ph.D. dissertation that the major problem of foreign students in Texas was communication with American students. He proved that the communication problem was in terms of language proficiency. Furthermore, Collins (1976) found that the major problems of foreign students were related to social and recreational activities at Howard University. According to the language barrier to interaction with Americans, foreign students do not easily adapt to American social activities (Penn and Durham, 1978). The problem of adjustment caused by English language deficiency was the main problem found in a North Carolina University study (Stafford, 1978).

Von Dorpowski (1977) revealed the most critical problem for foreign students, specially for students from non-English speaking countries, such as Orientals, Latin

Americans, and Arabs was the English language. There is the misconception among some U.S. nationals that any foreign students who does not speak English fluently is profoundly ignorant (Couser, 1978).

That language proficiency is a preference factor to communicate with Americans was found at the University of Tennessee (Johnson, 1971) and Oregon State University (Penn and Durham, 1978). Foreign students considered difficulty in understanding the language and their unfamiliarity with American customs to be the major barriers to interaction with Americans.

Morris (1960) found that difficulty with English was related to dissatisfaction with foreign students' study and contact with Americans at the University of Minnesota. Nenyod (1975) indicated that some social, housing, and food problems were due to lack of English proficiency. Besides this, English proficiency was also found to be related to social and emotional adjustment (Selltiz et al., 1963; Hull, 1978). The Garretts (1981) pointed out that English language deficiencies play an important role in alienating the new foreign students from the host educational system and environment.

Academic Level

Stafford (1978) found that undergraduate foreign students have greater difficulty in the English language, unfriendliness of the community, and maintaining cultural customs than did graduates. By contrast, Quinn (1975) found that undergraduate students had the most successful adjustment, but Ph.D. students had the least successful adjustment. That undergraduate students were establishing more social relationships than graduate students was found by Selltiz et al. (1963). The studies

showed that undergraduate foreign students have more social contacts with host nationals both as friends and in their living arrangements (Sewell and Davidsen, 1961; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1966; Deutsch, 1970; Ibrahim, 1970; Johnson, 1970; Hull, 1978)

Snipes (1969) explored that foreign graduate students devoted the most time to use mass media, and undergraduate students spent more time on social-personal and social-non-personal communication activities.

Length of Stay in the United States

Not only is the academic level of foreign students related to adjustment, but the length of stay is also related. Length of stay was related to food adaptation for Oriental students (Ho, 1965). Length of stay in the United States and adjustment were positively related (Quinn, 1975; Hull, 1978). Guglielmo (1967) indicated that length of stay was related to the foreign students' knowledge of purchasing. Lozada (1970) and Gabriel (1973) reported that English difficulties will decrease if students have been in the U.S. more than one year.

Porter (1962) found that foreign students who had been at Michigan State University more than 13 months checked more problems on the Michigan International Student Problem Inventory than did those who had been there less than one year. However, Sharma (1971) reported that length of stay had little effect on problems for foreign students. With regard to length of residence, Braun (1976) found that people who live in a community for longer periods of time tended to be less alienated.

Type of Residence

Moore (1976) studied female graduates of 1930-40 and 1950-60 from one southern college and found that there were significant differences between the alienated and the non-alienated in variables of dwelling types and marital status. Selltiz et al. (1963) showed that living arrangements were significantly related to the extent students formed social relationships at the University of Minnesota. Foreign students who lived in a dormitory tended to be less alienated than those who lived in a university apartment or a private apartment at Iowa State University (Swatdipong, 1979).

Moreover, foreign students who lived on campus with an American roommate were highly related to join social activities and involvement with Americans at Oklahoma State University (Wilson, 1975).

Mass Media Exposure by Foreign Students

In the study, "Neo-socialization Function of Mass Media Working Among Foreign Students", Ryu (1976) reported that mass media possession by foreign students was very high. They owned at least one radio and one television per person which is about 92.5 percent of the 160 foreign students (sample) at the University of Oregon. Of the sample 63.1 percent read foreign newspapers. Of foreign students from non-English speaking countries only 13 percent did not read American magazines. Students from non-English speaking countries watch TV because it helps people to learn English.

Markham (1967) found that mass media were the main sources of learning about the American environment across time at the University of Iowa. Mowlana and McLaughlin (1969) surveyed foreign students at the University of Tennessee and found that students were exposed to the mass media as information sources. The

results of this study showed that TV and radio were the two main sources to get information about America, followed by American newspapers and magazines, foreign publications, and personal sources for students from Asia and the Middle East. However, U.S. newspapers and magazines were the first information sources for students from Europe. From the investigation of the three types of magazines, it was found that foreign students read an average of 1.76 magazines of the Time-Life type, .68 of the opinion type, and only .14 of the entertainment type.

McLeod et al. (1972) reported that alienated adults spend more time on mass media. Samuelson et al. (1963) indicated that the correlation between education and TV viewing or radio listening was positive. Ryu (1976) showed that low English proficiency was associated with higher TV viewing rather than using other media. TV was a good source to learn English and about American surroundings due to its audio-visual advantage (Seyfi, 1979).

The investigation of Snipes (1969) found that both undergraduate and graduate foreign students at Indiana University spent a lot of time attending to broadcast media and print media. He stressed that personality factors did not correlate with communication behaviors and found that graduate students spent more time with mass media and undergraduate students spent more time in social communication activities.

Ryu (1976) explored that news, situation comedy, drama and movies are popular programs among all foreign students both from English and non-English speaking countries. Ryu also found that length of residence has significant correlation with media exposure for non-English speaking foreign students. The survey results showed time spent with reading newspapers increased with the length of residence.

Kapoor and Smith (1978) concluded that television is one of the cues that enable foreign students to accurately perceive American values. They studied 280 foreign students in three universities in Illinois to find the role of informal cues in enabling foreign students to acquire a knowledge of American society. They found that attending the movies on TV contributed to the positive perception of Americans. Klineberg and Hull (1979) surveyed 2,536 foreign students from 139 nations, studying in 11 countries. They found that the two important factors implicated in the coping process of students at a foreign university were social contact with local people and prior foreign experience. Both of these factors supported a culture learning and social skill interpretation of the coping process.

Kim's (1977a) research of immigrants studied the amount (or frequency) of their exposure to radio, television, magazines, newspapers, and movies of the host society as well as within the ethnic community, and two added items of watching TV news and listening to radio news program. He found that all seven categories of media behavior correlated positively with one another, and that an immigrant's use of ethnic media decreases rapidly in time.

Findings from various researchers have revealed that there is an association between high alienation and poor learning (Seeman, 1963, 1966; Coleman et al., 1966; Bullough, 1967). Kim (1977a) found that there is a positive relationship between time spent with mass media and cognitive complexity. That is, the more time you spend on mass media, the higher the perception of social cognitive complexity. The findings of this research showed that people who have contact with information-oriented contents of mass media can better understand the host society than those who have contact with entertainment-oriented contents of mass media. Kim also

revealed that the degree of exposure to news or the information-oriented content of the media (newspaper and radio-television news) was far more closely related to the immigrant's perceptual complexity and interpersonal relationship formation with members of the host society than the exposure to overall radio, television, or magazine content. Rubin and Rubin (1982) indicated that viewing of TV news and talk shows was associated most strongly with an information-learning motive.

Rosengren and Windahl (1972) studied the question of the social origins of gratifications and found that there is a relationship between low potential for social interaction and parasocial interaction with media content.

Summary of Literature Review

The preceding review of literature has tapped a variety of studies relating to interpersonal communication and mass media use of foreign students. An evaluation of the literature reviewed suggests that English proficiency will affect foreign students in their abilities and relations to communicate with Americans.

Moreover, length of stay in the United States, academic level, and type of residence as variables are significantly related to their communication activities with Americans. Furthermore, mass media were found as a main source for foreign students to become familiar with their new environment. TV, especially, was found as the leading source for learning about their American environment. News or information-oriented content of mass media was found to be more closely related to understand their host society. Besides, there is a relationship between lower social interaction and higher media content consumption.

In order to know whether foreign students learn their new environment via inter-

personal communication with Americans or mass media use under different circumstances and the relationship between interpersonal communication and mass media use by foreign students in the United States, the general hypotheses will be set for testing the results of this study.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I:

There is a significant relationship between the length of stay in the United States and mass media use by foreign students.

(1) Time spent with TV viewing increases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

(2) Time spent with listening to radio increases with length of study in the United States of foreign students.

(3) Time spent with reading American newspapers increases with length of study in the United States of foreign students.

(4) Time spent with reading American magazines increases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

(5) Time spent with reading newspapers from home country decreases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

(6) Time spent with reading magazines from home country decreases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Hypothesis II:

TV will be found as a main source of learning about the American environment for foreign students.

(1) Foreign students spend more time on TV viewing than on the other selected media used in this study to learn about the American environment.

(2) Watching news or information programs will be found to be significantly related to learning English.

(3) Watching entertainment programs will be found to be significantly related to learning about American customs and lifestyles.

Hypothesis III:

Single foreign students will spend more time than married ones on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Hypothesis IV:

Foreign students who have an American roommate have more interpersonal communication with Americans than those who have not.

Hypothesis V:

Foreign students who are undergraduate students have more interpersonal communications with Americans than those who are graduate students.

Hypothesis VI:

(1) Foreign students who are from English-speaking countries will spend more time on interpersonal communication with Americans than those who are from non-English speaking countries.

(2) Foreign students who are from non-English speaking countries will spend more time on using mass media than those who are from English-speaking countries.

(3) There is a significant relationship between interpersonal communication with Americans and mass media use of foreign students.

CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

This chapter presents a description and discussion of the theoretical orientation employed in this study.

For the purpose of this study, "individuals are viewed as systems and are understood to function through ongoing interactions with the environment and its inhabitants" (Kim and Ruben, 1988, p. 307). From this perspective, communication refers to the process of information decoding (receiving, processing, and transforming) and encoding (expressing verbally and nonverbally) necessary to function in a given environment. Through communication, an individual is linked with the environment informationally. This continual give-and-take process of communication is necessary to the emergence and survival of all humans as social beings. In order to have capacity to cope with varied environmental conditions, communication serves as a necessary means for individuals in managing themselves and their environment (Kim and Ruben, 1988).

Edward Sapir (1931), looking at the pattern of human existence, noted that "every cultural pattern and every single act of social behavior involves communication in either an explicit or implicit sense" (p. 80). Frank Dance (1967) suggested that at least three natural and inevitable consequences emerge from the human capability to communicate: the intergration of the individual with his environment, the devel-

opment of his mental processes, and the regulation of his behavior. Ultimately, what you are, as made manifest in the ways in which you communicate, can undergo a critical and positive adjustment through change and reinforcement.

Miller and Steinberg (1975) argued that the purpose of communication in general is to increase predictability of the environment (including other people) so that the environment can be controlled and rewards achieved. "Communication helps us to interpret our observations of the world" (Steinfatt, 1977, p. 167). "Communication means that information is passed from one place to another" (Miller, 1951, p. 6). Berelson and Steiner (1964) defined Communication as:

The transmission of information, ideas, emotions, skills, etc. by the use of symbols-words, pictures, figures, graphs, etc. It is the act or process of transmission that is usually called communication" (p. 527).

According to these cited explanations of communication, any communication act involves a sequence of events which takes the basic form of a decision to transmit meaning, the formulation of intended message into a language or code, and act of transmission and reception by someone else.

McQuail (1975) argued that language systems and code concerned with the "transmission" of messages are related to the "means of communication". He indicated that the primary means of human communication is spoken language. Thus, to have contact with new environment, language is used as an instrument to communicate with host members for learning information. In addition, such technologies as telegraphy for distributing multiple copies of messages by way of mass media such as newspapers, magazines, televisions and radios are associated with the reception of information.

People can become familiar with and adjust to their new environment through the means of communication, either using language or using mass media. Thus, on the one hand, "with the crude beginning of language, the interpersonal communication-communication in a face-to-face situation-bridged the gap from concrete to the abstract" (Bittner, 1980, p. 9); on the other hand, mass media are the other channels besides the means of interpersonal communication to transmit information. These technology channels can carry messages from the speaker to the audience.

In order to distinguish interpersonal exchanges from other types of communicative transactions, the situationally bound criteria have usually been relied on:

interpersonal communication is characterized as involving a relatively small number of communicators; occurring in physically proximal, face-to-face situation; allowing the use of a maximal number of sensory channels; and permitting opportunity for immediate feedback" (Miller, 1978, p. 165).

Interpersonal communication is viewed here as a major channel through which immigrants learn about the ways to cope with their new social and cultural environment (Kim, 1977).

In order to adjust to the new environment of foreign students, they need information about new social and cultural circumstances offered by persons or mass media. Therefore, based on the motivations of foreign students, their communication behaviors will be examined using four basic theories.

Uses and Gratifications Theory

The uses and gratifications theory is focused on explaining the ways in which audience motives, exceptions, and media behaviors interact. The theoretical growth

for the uses and gratifications approach was heralded by Blumler and Katz (1974). According to the objectives of this study, the "gratification and media consumption", "gratifications and media effects", and "social and psychological origins of media gratifications" are used to explain the media use behaviors of foreign students.

Gratifications and Media Consumption

Media consumption, which is defined here as audiences' choices of an exposure to different media and media content, is viewed by uses and gratifications adherents as initialized by individuals' needs, wants and requirements. The gratifications are viewed as one of the major causes of active, purposive media consumption behavior of audiences directed at gratification fulfillment (Palmgreen, 1984).

There are various motivations for media consumption, including information, entertainment, social utility, and personal identity (Katz et al., 1974). Surveys of different studies showed empirical associations between various gratification measures and media exposure, medium choice, and content choice (Palmgreen, 1984). Gratifications are related to program choice in different ways. Palmgreen et al. (1981) found that respondents obtain greater gratifications from their favorite network television news programs than they obtained (or felt they would obtain) from the two competing programs. Rubin and Rubin (1982) found that specific gratifications sought are related to viewing specific types of programs. The seeking of passive-entertainment kinds of gratifications from TV was related to total viewing time and the viewing of daytime serials and game shows. The research results of various studies from the United States, Britain, Sweden, Israel and Australia showed that mass media consumption is motivated by gratifications associated with the consumption experience.

For instance, the seeking of informational gratifications is related to viewing television news, documentary magazines, and talk shows (Rubin and Rubin, 1982).

Gratifications and Media Effects

The concept of gratification and media effects shows that various gratifications are related to a wide spectrum of media effects, including knowledge, dependency.

Media dependency is conceptualized as an antecedent and a consequence of mass media consumption. Media dependency is related to a number of motives for attending to the media. That is, the more motivated persons are in seeking gratifications from a particular medium or the more they perceive they are obtaining gratifications, the more they will come to depend on that medium (Rubin and Windahl, 1982). For instance, Wenner (1982) indicated that dependency on television news programs is related to surveillance gratifications.

The strongest motivational correlate of the perceived content realism of television was an information (about life) motive (Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1979, 1981, 1983). In other words, those who perceive that television is an accurate reflection of life should also be the most likely to seek information about life from the medium.

Social and Psychological Origins of Media Gratification

Some research relates gratifications and needs to exposure to newspapers, radio, and other media (Rosengren and Windahl, 1972; Kline, Miller, and Morrison, 1974; Nordlund, 1978; Becker and Fruit, 1982). With regard to social and psychological origins of media gratifications, Blumler (1979) provided these concepts.

Blumler (1979) posited three major social origins of media gratifications: (1)

normative influences, which give rise to certain requirements or expectations based on sex, and social roles, etc.; (2) socially distributed life chances, consisting of factors that "facilitate" a richer involvement with media content (for instance, organizational affiliations, frequency of social contact) or that are sources of a "need to compensate" for lack of various social opportunities (e.g., lack of friends or opportunities for leisure); and (3) the subjective reaction or adjustment of the individual to his or her social situation (e.g., job or role satisfaction). Thus, social origins of media gratification can be viewed as a desire to stay in contact with and oriented to the social milieu.

Rosengren and Windahl (1972) found support for a relationship between low potential for social interaction and parasocial interaction with mass media content. Roe (1983) examined fifty high school students (age 15). He found that most actively sought more or less clearly perceived social gratifications from videocassette use for establishing and maintaining a shared peer-group activity.

Psychological factors may stimulate individuals' motivation for much media use. This is hinted at by Blumler's "subjective adjustment" to the social situation. This concept was based and extended from McGuire's (1974) theoretical framework of human motives for understanding the cognitive and affective underpinnings of media consumption. For analysis the communication behaviors of foreign students, the Utilitarian theory and Affiliation theory are selected from McGuire's theoretical framework to explore the psychological motives for media use. These two theories are depicted below.

Utilitarian Theory

Foreign students want to learn their new environment because they are faced with various problems, such as values, culture, customs, and language. How do they solve such problems for adjusting to their new environment? McGuire (1974) provided a consideration of fundamental human motives which is relevant to mass media consumption. He argued that human motivation is stimulated by a new environment whether active or passive.

The Utilitarian theory stresses growth of one's present state as one's cognitive goal and depicts the individual as more passively responding to environmental demands. It stresses the external orientation of the person which views the individual as:

a problem solver who approaches any situation as an opportunity to acquire useful information or new skills for coping with life's challenges (p. 181).

This theory views a person as a coper, confronting environment situations as problems to be solved. It stresses the person's view of life as an endeavor containing challenges which require considerable skills to meet but which, with effort, can be surmounted. Besides, it also describes that the individual is taking an essentially positive stance toward the outside world, including communications from it, since he or she views the outside world as a valuable source of helpful and relevant information.

"The informational content of mass communication probably accounts for as much of the individual's sophistication in public affairs and grasp of social and psychological phenomena as do those other two educational institutions of our culture, the home and the school" (McGuire, 1974, p. 122). Even entertainment content

of mass media contains a lot of information to an audience about taste in clothes, lifestyles and appropriate interpersonal relationships

The Lazarsfeld-Stanton (1941, 1949) period of communication research has revealed that even the daytime radio serial was considered as a valuable source of information on how to cope with life's problems (Herzog, 1944). Based on these points of view of a person as striving problems solver, mass communication provides a wide range of gratifications in the form of content regarding how to live, how to manage, what is happening, and what it means (McGuire, 1974). According to McGuire's Utilitarian theory, foreign students need valuable information sources to help them solve problems of adjusting to the new environment.

Affiliation Theory

Affiliation theory stresses a person's motivation to grow or to improve his or her state and emphasizes the individual as active in the initiation of behaviors. It stresses the external orientation of the person which views people as:

being basically altruistic and cohesive, seeking acceptance and affection in interpersonal relations (p. 188).

The concepts of affiliation stress the person's motivation to establish with other people connections that are characterized by mutual helpfulness and reciprocated positive affect. Katz, Gurevitch and Haas (1973) have emphasized the usefulness of mass communication in connecting the individual with various human networks. McGuire stressed that media contents offer a person a conversation piece serving interaction with other people whom one meets in daily life in like circumstance. For instance, "the fictional contents of TV or radio can bring the faithful audience into

more daily contact with roles portrayed by mass media than the audience attains with any of the real people in their lives except possibly for a few members of their nuclear family” (p. 189).

A study of the British public’s reaction to the termination in 1969 of a long-time radio serial, *The Dales*, showed that the audience experiences substitute socialization by interacting with the almost-real characters in the daytime serials is poignantly exhibited.

Since foreign students, seek a connection with their new environment, mass media can provide gratification or needs for them to a feeling of affiliating with their host society.

An Interactive Theory of Communication-Acculturation

Kim (1979) mentioned that:

communication and acculturation are viewed as interdependent and inseparable processes, and are natural and inevitable for any individual who has been socialized in one culture and moves to another (p. 435).

Kim (1979) argued that as a new member of a cultural system, the individual experiences feelings of inadequacy and inability to control the social environment because he or she is faced with the task of having to deal with many unfamiliar aspects of life. Although Kim’s research theory dealt with foreign immigrant reaction to their host society, this theory is used to develop Kim’s approach to deal with foreign students on communication-acculturation.

Formally explaining, “acculturation” is referred to as:

those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes

in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups (Redfield et al., 1936, p. 149).

Merely handling the transaction of daily living requires the ability to detect the new surroundings. The immigrant becomes acquainted with, and adopts some of the norms and values of the new society.

Nagata (1969) described the acculturation process of Japanese Americans across three generations, and reported a progressive increase in degrees of communication participation in the host society. Ryu (1978) suggested a positive role of mass media in the acculturation of Korean immigrants. Kim proposed a path model to explain questions why certain individuals display greater participation in communication channels of the host society and how such participation affects the general acculturation process (Kim, 1976, 1977b).

In the communication-acculturation process, it was hypothesized that the greater the language competence, acculturation motivation, and accessibility to host communication channels, the greater will be the interpersonal communication with members of the host society. Second, the greater the saturation for any of the three factors, the greater the immigrant's use of host mass media. The more the immigrant interpersonally communicates and the more he uses the mass media, the greater will be the refinement of his perception of the host society.

From the systems perspective, a human being is an open system, exchanging materials, energies, or information with the environment. The system is closed if there is no import or export of energies in any of its forms, and therefore no change of components. People, here, become closed when they cease to live. Humans, as an open system, show a quality usually called adaptation. So people are active and goal

seeking.

Communication, then, is the fundamental process in and through which acculturation occurs and evolves. Thus, the acculturation process is a communication process. Therefore, an individual's communication-acculturation process is approached from a functional point of view. Kim (1979) provided five axioms as fundamental assumptions regarding the process of communication-acculturation as follows:

Axiom 1. The acculturation process is a natural process of adaptation of an individual who has been socialized in one culture and moves to another culture.

Axiom 2. Acculturation occurs in and through communication. Therefore, the acculturation process is a communication process.

Axiom 3. Communication patterns of an immigrant at one point of time, in turn, reflect the acculturation of the immigrant.

Axiom 4. The communication-acculturation process is an interactive and continuous process. It evolves in and through relationships between an individual immigrant and his social cultural environment.

Axiom 5. An immigrant belongs to multitudes of subsystems with the host society. Among the subsystems that he belongs to, those systems that are of direct and significant functional relevance to his day-to-day life are most influential to his communication-acculturation process (p. 439).

The basic element of the human communication system is the person who is actively being, seeking and desiring communication. Ruben (1975) indicated a communication system paradigm as a scheme for categorizing "information-metabolizing" structure in terms of the symbolic process involved. Ruben's arguments are useful in conceptualizing the communication-acculturation process.

An individual's communication environment shapes the degree of "accessibility" to host communication channels. The channels include the degree of opportunity

for association with host members in host environment and the degree of contact with host mass media. The communication of contact with host members (interpersonal communication) and contact with mass media (mass communication) is depicted as "social communication" which is the way Ruben (1975) conceptualized the communication-acculturation process.

Ruben (1975) indicated that:

Social communication is the process underlying intersubjectivization, a phenomenon which occurs as a consequence of public symbolization and symbol utilization and diffusion. It is through this information metabolism process that the world we know is defined, labeled, and categorized... It is through this same process that multi-person organization, social order, control and predictability are achieved (p. 171).

People can perceive their social-cultural environment to interpret the information from the environment.

Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication is an aspect of social communication. Kim (1979) said that an immigrant's interpersonal communication in the host social-cultural system occurs through interpersonal relationship. Interpersonal relationship patterns represent the purpose, function, and product of the immigrant's interpersonal communication.

The communication-acculturation process does not occur in isolation, but in interactive and interlocking relationships with an immigrant's environment. However, the degree of opportunity for association with members of the host society depends on the chance to develop interpersonal relationships with native-born. For example,

people who live with an American have a greater contact with the American society through greater accessibility to interpersonally communicate with host members.

Mass Media Communication

Mass media communication is another aspect of social communication. Gordon (1974) suggested: "the media's major socialization influence is on images and stereotypes we possess of our environment, our social system (p. 13).

Lasswell (1964) indicated that the mass media communication process provides three functions: (1) surveillance of the environment, (2) correlation of the components of society in making a response to the environment, and (3) transmission of the social inheritance.

Thus, mass media not only refer to topical events but may also reflect social values, norms of behavior, and traditional perspectives for interpreting the environment. Media contribute to the transmission of culture to the host members and to immigrants. The consumption of mass media such as publications, radio, television are related to acculturation. Richmond (1967) reported newspapers and magazines convey the knowledge of host country norms of behavior and social institutions.

Graves (1967) and Nagata (1969) noted that acculturation processes included the possession of television. De Fleur and Cho (1957) assumed that the amount of daily exposure to radio (as well as television) is one of the acculturative variables in "recreational behavior" (p. 249). Also, entertainment may be an effective variable in acculturation.

Gudykunst and Halsall (1979) tried to apply the theory of contraculture to sojourner adjustment. They argued that empathy, cultural awareness, and confidence

in host language skill will enable the sojourner to deal with the psychological stress of adjustment. They indicated that noncontraculture contact with host nationals will decrease acceptance of contraculture. That is, interaction with host nationals will increase adjustment to the host culture.

According to their arguments, the more sojourners have contact with host nationals, the more they adjust to the host culture. Dance and Larson (1976) identified the main functions served by communication and suggest that the consequence for interpersonal communication is the linking function of the individual with the environment.

When foreign students become involved in America, sooner or later, they have to handle the transactions of daily living that requires the ability to detect the new environment. Foreign students become acquainted with, and adopt some of the norms and values of the host society for adjustment. This process is commonly called "acculturation." Communication, thus, is the underlying process in acculturation by which a foreign student and host socialcultural environment interact. Ruben (1975) indicated that social communication (interpersonal communication and mass media communication) is used to perceive his or her new social-cultural environment. Thus, foreign students can, through such social communication, perceive their new environment.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides methodological procedures for an investigation at an empirical level. The procedures are described in four sections: (1) the sampling procedure; (2) a method of data collection; (3) definitions of operational variables; (4) methods of statistical analysis.

The Sampling Procedure

The study deals with foreign students enrolled at Iowa State University (ISU) in Spring 1990 as the empirical population. The computerized list of 2,119 foreign students from 109 different countries was provided by the Office of International Educational Services at ISU.

Systematic sampling was used as a random sampling method to choose foreign students for responding to the survey questionnaires. Each respondent was asked for answering the questionnaire by means of a telephone survey. The number 10 was randomly chosen as a starting point and a sampling interval to collect the sample. Since there were 257 out of the 2,119 foreign students who did not have telephone numbers, the sample was selected from those who have telephone registrations, 1,862 records.

Two hundred and ten foreign students constituting about 11 percent of the total

(telephone registration) population were selected as the research sample.

A Method of Data Collection

Data for this study were obtained by the use of a 64-item questionnaire (see Appendix). The questionnaire was comprised of five types of items: (1) items designed to measure TV consumption; (2) items designed to measure radio consumption; (3) items designed to measure print media consumption, including American newspapers, American magazines, newspapers from home country, and magazines from home country; (4) items designed to measure interpersonal communication with Americans and non-Americans (foreign students coming from other countries or from their own countries); (5) items designed to provide demographic information and other information relevant to the purpose of this study.

The questionnaires were used to contact the sample by telephone between March 1 and March 31, 1990. Subjects were called up to three times during the survey period (Wiseman and McDonald, 1979). If a subject couldn't be contacted via telephone, then the subject was replaced by the next one from our sample records.

Of the 210 telephone numbers dialed, 200 were contacted. This represents a response rate of 95.24 percent. DaMaio (1980) argued that for those completion rates of empirical research which are not lower than 10 percent, the results will not be wrong. She argued for a minimum completion rate of 90 percent. In the present study, the response rate is 95.24 percent.

Definitions of Operational Variables

For the purpose of clarity, the selected variables are operationalized and measured. Following are definitions of operational variables used in coding data of this study.

1. Mass Media

Mass Media were defined as TV, radio, and print media. The print media were identified here as American newspapers, American magazines, newspapers from home country, and magazines from home country.

2. Mass Media Use

Mass media use was defined as the time of consumption of each selected medium by foreign students.

(1) The time of watching television was categorized by unit of hours per day from "none to more than 8 hours" (item 2, Appendix).

(2) The time of listening to radio was categorized by unit of minutes per day from "none to more than 90 minutes" (item 12, Appendix).

(3) The time of reading print media was categorized by unit of minutes per day from "none to more than 90 minutes" (item 22, 30, 37, 40, Appendix).

3. Learning about the American Environment

Learning about the American environment referred to learning English, shopping information, travel information, American customs, American lifestyles from television, radio, American newspapers, American magazines. Each mentioned medium with 5 items of the questions of learning about the American environment were used to ask the respondent to provide the most prominent score of exposure on the media. A fixed-choice item with a six-level score for each of these questions from "none" to

"a great deal" represented by numbers from 0 to 5 (item 4-8, item 14-18, item 23-27, item 31-35, Appendix).

4. Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal Communication was defined as having contact with Americans (including Americans and American friends) and non-Americans (people from foreign countries or their own countries), joining American or non-American parties or social activities.

5. Demographic Background Variables

Part V of the questionnaire included questions asking information about demographic characteristics of the respondents. These questions were designed to provide information about nationality, the first language of student's country, length of stay in the United States, major study, academic level, sex, marital status, roommate.

(1) The length of stay in the United States was categorized by unit of month which was divided into three groups, low, medium, and high depending on its distribution of frequency.

(2) Academic level was identified as undergraduate and graduate groups. The graduate groups included M.S./M.A. and Ph.D. students.

(3) Roommate was categorized as Americans and non-Americans, including roommate from home country, from foreign country, and no roommate.

Methods of Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X) was used to analyze the collected data (Nie et al., 1975).

A chi-square goodness of fit was used to determine whether the selected variables

are significantly related. The .05 level of probability, significance level, was used to determine the statistical significance of results. The results will be considered statistically significant if the probability is equal to or lower than the .05 level. The findings could be believed in 95 of the 100 possible repetitions, which is pretty good odds (Labovitz, 1968).

The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used to measure the degree of relationship between two variables. A Pearson r varies between -1.00 and +1.00. A Pearson r of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive, while a Pearson r of -1.00 indicates a perfect relationship in the negative direction. There is no relationship when r is equal to zero. A Pearson r can indicate the strength and direction of the relationship between defined variables (Wimmer and Dominick, 1987).

These methods were used to test the defined hypotheses to see whether there is a relationship among the operationalized variables.

CHAPTER 5. FINDINGS

In this chapter, the analysis of data will be presented in two main sections: (1) analysis of the sample population; (2) findings related to the testing of hypotheses.

Analysis of the Sample Population

The sample population is presented by considering the representation of country, first language, length of stay in the United States, academic level, sex, marital status, and roommate classification.

Country

As of spring 1990, there was an enrollment of 2,119 foreign students from 109 different countries at Iowa State University, and the six largest national groups were: Republic of Korea (297), Republic of China (252), People's Republic of China (205), India (199), Indonesia (160), Malaysia (129). The 200 respondents of the foreign student population represented 58 different countries (see Table 5.1). Since the sample collection was based on country code of the computerized list of foreign students, the students from larger national groups were selected almost more than those from smaller ones.

Table 5.1: Distribution of sample population by country

Country	Number	Percent	Country	Number	Percent
Australia	1	.5	Monaco	1	.5
Bangladesh	1	.5	Namibia	1	.5
Botswana	1	.5	New Zealand	1	.5
Brazil	2	1.0	Nigeria	1	.5
Canada	2	1.0	Norway	1	.5
Chad	1	.5	Pakistan	6	3.0
Colombia	1	.5	Panama	2	1.0
Costa Rica	1	.5	Paraguay	1	.5
Cyprus	1	.5	People's Republic	13	6.5
Egypt	2	1.0	of China		
Ethiopia	1	.5	Peru	1	.5
Federal Republic	1	.5	Philippines	2	1.0
of Germany			Republic of China	24	12.0
Ghana	1	.5	Republic of Korea	28	14.0
Greece	1	.5	Saudi Arabia	1	.5
Guatemala	2	1.0	Singapore	3	1.5
Guyana	1	.5	Spain	4	2.0
Honduras	1	.5	Sri Lanka	2	1.0
Hong Kong	6	3.0	Sudan	1	.5
India	18	9.0	Sweden	1	.5
Indonesia	14	7.0	Tanzania	1	.5
Iran	3	1.5	Trinidad and Tobago	1	.5
Ireland	1	.5	Turkey	2	1.0
Israel	1	.5	Uganda	1	.5
Japan	7	3.5	United Kindom	2	1.0
Jordan	2	1.0	Vietnam	2	1.0
Kenya	2	1.0	Yemen	1	.5
Lebanon	1	.5	Yugoslavia	1	.5
Malaysia	15	7.5	Zaire	1	.5
Mexico	1	.5	Zimbabwe	2	1.0
Total				200	100.0

Table 5.2: Distribution of languages

Language	Number	Percent
English	27	13.5
Non-English	173	86.5
Total	200	100.0

Table 5.3: Distribution of length of stay in the United States

Length of Stay in the U.S. Months		Number	Percent	Cum. Percent
Low	1 to 12 months	70	35.0	35.0
Medium	13 to 30 months	55	27.5	62.5
High	31 to 120 months	75	37.5	100.0
Total		200	100.0	

Language

Table 5.2 presents the language classification, which is categorized according to whether English is used as respondent's first language or not. It showed 27 foreign students from English-speaking countries and 173 from non-English speaking countries.

Length of Stay in the United States

The sample showed that foreign students stay in America anywhere from one month to 120 months. For the purpose of analysis, the length of stay in the United States was divided into three groups, "low", "medium", and "high". Based on frequencies of length of stay in the U.S., the three groups were categorized by using the percentiles of 33 and 66 as cutting points. See Table 5.3 for details on classification.

Table 5.4: Distribution of academic level

Academic level	Degree sought	Number	Percent
Undergraduate	Bachelor's	59	29.5
Graduate	Master's	87	43.5
	Ph.D.	49	24.5
Other	IEOP	5	2.5
Total		200	100.0

Table 5.5: Distribution of sex

Sex	Number	Percent
Female	67	33.5
Male	133	66.5
Total	200	100.0

Academic Level

Table 5.4 shows that 59 of the respondents are undergraduate students and 136 are graduate students. Eighty-seven of those graduates are working on master's degrees and 49 are working on Ph.D. degrees. Since five students are studying in Intensive English and Orientation Program (IEOP) who are not formally students of ISU, they are excluded in our analysis.

Sex

Table 5.5 shows that 67 female foreign students and 133 male foreign students are involved in this survey.

Table 5.6: Distribution of marital status

Marital Status	Number	Percent
Single	127	63.5
Married	73	36.5
Total	200	100.0

Table 5.7: Distribution of roommate classification

Roommate	Number	Percent
American	34	24.8
Non-American	103	75.2
Total	137	100.0

Marital Status

Table 5.6 shows that 73 respondents are married, and 127 are single. In the married group, 63 students reported that their spouses came with them to Ames, and 33 reported that their spouses are ISU students.

Roommate Classification

Table 5.7 shows that 34 of the respondents lived with an American roommate, 137 lived with non-Americans, including 35 of those living with a roommate from the home country, 42 living with a roommate from another foreign country but not from America, and 26 living without a roommate. For those who did not live with an American roommate, they were classified as living with non-American roommate.

Findings Related to the Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis I

There is a significant relationship between the length of stay in the United States and mass media use by foreign students.

There were six subhypotheses included in Hypothesis I. In order to do statistical analysis, the length of stay in the United States was divided into three groups, "low", "medium", and "high" as mentioned previously. The time of spending on mass media was divided into two groups, "low" and "high", using the percentiles of frequency 50 as a cutting point.

Hypothesis I-1

Time spent with TV viewing increases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Table 5.8 presents a probability value of .0165 which is smaller than the significance level of .05, and a chi-square value of 8.21291 which is greater than 5.991 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). Thus, the hypothesis is supported. From the percentage of "high" viewing group, we can find that the percentage increases with the length of stay in the U.S. of foreign students from 35.7 percent to 41.8 percent to 58.7 percent. That is, the longer foreign students stay in the U.S., the more time they spend on TV viewing.

Hypothesis I-2

Time spent with listening to radio increases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Table 5.8: TV viewing and length of stay in the U. S.

TV viewing	Length of stay in the United States			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
	(1/12 M.)	(13/30 M.)	(31/120 M.)	
Low (≤ 2 hrs./day)	45(64.3%)	32(58.2%)	31(41.3%)	108(54.0%)
High (> 2 hrs./day)	25(35.7%)	23(41.8%)	44(58.7%)	92(46.0%)
Total	70(35.0%)	55(27.5%)	75(37.5%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=8.21291				
D.F.=2				
P-value=.0165				

Table 5.9 shows a probability value of .2851 which is greater than the significance level of .05, and a chi-square value of 2.50974 which smaller than 5.991 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). So the hypothesis is not supported. There is no significant relationship between time spent with listening to radio and length of stay in the United States.

Hypothesis I-3

Time spent with reading American newspapers increases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Table 5.10 presents a probability of .6884 which is greater than the significance level of .05, and a chi-square value of .74681 which is smaller than 5.991 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). Therefore, the hypothesis is not supported. There is no significant relationship between time spent with reading American newspapers and length of stay in the U.S.

Table 5.9: Listening to radio and length of stay in the U. S.

Listening to radio	Length of stay in the United States			
	Low	Medium	High	Total
	(1/12 M.)	(13/30 M.)	(31/120 M.)	
Low (≤ 30 mins./day)	26(37.1%)	16(29.1%)	32(42.7%)	74(37.0%)
High (> 30 mins./day)	44(62.9%)	39(70.9%)	43(57.3%)	126(63.0%)
Total	70(35.0%)	55(27.5%)	75(37.5%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=2.50974				
D.F.=2				
P-value=.2851				

Table 5.10: Reading American newspapers and length of stay in the U. S.

Reading U.S. newspapers.	Length of stay in the United States			
	Low	Medium	High	Total
	(1/12 M.)	(13/30 M.)	(31/120 M.)	
Low (≤ 30 mins./day)	48(68.6%)	30(70.9%)	48(64.0%)	135(67.5%)
High (> 30 mins./day)	22(31.4%)	16(29.1%)	27(36.0%)	65(32.5%)
Total	70(35.0%)	55(27.5%)	75(37.5%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=.74681				
D.F.=2				
P-value=.6884				

Table 5.11: Reading American magazines and length of stay in the U.S.

Reading U.S. magazines	Length of stay in the United States			
	Low	Medium	High	Total
	(1/12 M.)	(13/30 M.)	(31/120 M.)	
Low (≤ 30 mins./day)	49(70.0%)	38(69.1%)	38(50.7%)	125(62.5%)
High (< 30 mins./day)	21(30.0%)	17(30.9%)	37(49.3%)	75(37.5%)
Total	70(35.0%)	55(27.5%)	75(37.5%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=7.18028				
D.F.=2				
P-value=.0276				

Hypothesis I-4

Time spent with reading American magazines increases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Table 5.11 presents a probability value of .0276 which is smaller than the significance level of .05, and a chi-square value of 7.18028 which is greater than 5.991 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). Thus, the hypothesis is supported. There is a significant relationship between the time spent with reading American magazines and the length of stay in the United States. From the percentage of "high" reading group, we can find the percentage increases with length of stay in the U.S. from 30 percent to 30.9 percent to 49.3 percent. In other words, the longer foreign students stay in the U.S., the more time they spend on reading American magazines.

Hypothesis I-5

Time spent with reading newspapers from home country decreases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Table 5.12: Reading newspapers from home country and length of stay in the U. S.

Reading H.C. news.	Length of stay in the U. S.			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
	(1/12 M.)	(13/30 M.)	(31/120 M.)	
Low (0 min./day)	14(20.0%)	14(25.5%)	28(37.3%)	56(28.0%)
High (<=30 mins./day)	56(80.0%)	41(74.5%)	47(62.7%)	144(72.0%)
Total	70(35.0%)	55(27.5%)	75(37.5%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=5.63973				
D.F.=2				
P-value=.0596				

Table 5.12 shows a probability value of .0596 which is greater than the significance level of .05 but very close to the significance level, and a chi-square value of 5.63973 which is smaller than 5.991 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). So, the hypothesis is not supported. Although the result is not supported statistically, there is a significant difference between these two variables. Table 5.12 shows that foreign students' time spent on reading newspapers from home country decreases with the length of stay in the United States. The percentage of "high" reading group decreases with the length of stay in the United States from 80 percent to 74.5 percent to 62.7 percent.

Hypothesis I-6

Time spent with reading magazines from home country decreases with length of stay in the United States of foreign students.

Table 5.13 illustrates a probability value of .8507 which is greater than the significance level of .05, and a chi-square value of .32345 which is smaller than 5.991 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). Thus, the hypothesis is

Table 5.13: Reading magazines from home country and length of stay in the U. S.

Reading H.C. magazines	Length of stay in the U. S.			
	Low	Medium	High	Total
	(1/12 M.)	(13/30 M.)	(31/120 M.)	
Low (0 min./day)	36(51.4%)	31(56.4%)	41(54.7%)	108(54.0%)
High (<=30 mins./day)	34(48.6%)	24(43.6%)	34(45.3%)	92(46.0%)
Total	70(35.0%)	55(27.5%)	75(37.5%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=.32345				
D.F.=2				
P-value=.8507				

not supported. There is no significant relationship between time spent with reading magazines and length of stay in the United States.

Hypothesis II

TV will be found as a main source of learning about the American environment for foreign students.

There were three subhypotheses included in Hypothesis II. In order to do statistical analysis, the time spent on TV viewing was divided into two groups, "low" and "high", using the percentiles of frequency 50 as a cutting point in subhypotheses 2 and 3.

Hypothesis II-1

Foreign students spend more time on TV viewing than on the other selected media used in this study to learn about the American environment.

From the frequency distribution of time spent on different selected media, it was found that foreign students spent more time on TV viewing than on other media.

Table 5.14 shows that foreign students spent an average of 112.8 minutes per day watching TV, whereas they spent an average of less than 30 minutes per day on listening to radio, reading American newspapers, or reading American magazines.

Hypothesis II-2

Watching news or information programs will be found to be significantly related to learning English.

Item 3 of the questionnaire (see Appendix) included eight different types of TV programs.

Days spent on watching each of eight programs per week and learning English from TV were both divided into two groups, "low" and "high", using the percentiles 50 as a cutting point of the frequency.

(1) Tables 5.15 to 5.22 present the results of testing the hypothesis. Table 5.15 shows a probability value of .0469 which is smaller than the significance level of .05, and a chi-square value of 3.94743 which is greater than 3.841 at this level comparing with chi-square table (Cox, 1987). Thus, the hypothesis is supported, that there is a significant relationship between watching news or information programs and learning English from TV.

(2) Table 5.16 presents a probability value of .3715 which is greater than the significance level of .05. There is no significant relationship between watching sports programs and learning English from TV.

(3) Table 5.17 presents a probability value of .1496 which is greater than the significance level of .05. Thus, there is no significant relationship between watching drama/play programs and learning English from TV.

Table 5.14: Distribution of time spent on mass media per day

Mass media	Number	Percent	Cum. Percent	Mean
Television				
Less than 1 hr.	44	22.0	22.0	
1 to less than 2 hrs.	64	32.0	54.0	
2 to less than 3 hrs.	70	35.0	89.0	
3 to less than 4 hrs.	17	8.5	97.5	
4 to less than 5 hrs.	4	2.0	99.5	
5 to less than 6 hrs.	1	.5	100.0	
Total	200	100.0		1.88 hr./day (112.8 mins./day)
Radio				
None	15	7.5	7.5	
Less than 30 mins.	59	29.5	37.5	
31 to 60 mins.	40	20.0	57.0	
61 to 90 mins.	22	11.0	68.0	
more than 90 mins.	64	32.0	100.0	
Total	200	100.0		27.675 mins./day
American newspapers				
None	6	3.0	3.0	
Less than 30 mins.	129	64.5	67.5	
31 to 60 mins.	52	26.0	93.5	
61 to 90 mins.	11	5.5	99.0	
more than 90 mins.	2	1.0	100.0	
Total	200	100.0		18.55 mins./day
American magazines				
None	22	11.0	11.0	
Less than 30 mins.	103	51.5	62.5	
31 to 60 mins.	53	26.5	89.0	
61 to 90 mins.	16	8.0	97.0	
more than 90 mins.	6	3.0	100.0	
Total	200	100.0		18.5 mins./day

Table 5.15: Watching news/info. programs and learning English from TV

Watching news/info. programs	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (≤ 6 days/week)	44(46.8%)	34(32.1%)	78(39.0%)
High (> 6 days/week)	50(53.2%)	72(67.9%)	122(61.0%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=3.94743
D.F.=1
P-value=.0469

Table 5.16: Watching sports programs and learning English from TV

Watching sports programs	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (≤ 1 day/week)	53(56.4%)	52(49.1%)	105(52.5%)
High (> 1 day/week)	41(43.6%)	54(50.9%)	95(47.5%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.79866
D.F.=1
P-value=.3715

Table 5.17: Watching drama/play programs and learning English from TV

Watching drama/play programs	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (≤ 1 day/week)	45(47.9%)	39(36.8%)	84(42.0%)
High (> 1 day/week)	49(52.1%)	67(63.2%)	116(58.0%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=2.07647
D.F.=1
P-value=.1496

Table 5.18: Watching soap operas and learning English from TV

Watching soap operas	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (0 day/week)	69(73.4%)	67(63.2%)	136(68.0%)
High (≥ 1 day/week)	25(26.6%)	39(36.8%)	64(32.0%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=1.93494			
D.F.=1			
P-value=.1642			

Table 5.19: Watching movies and learning English from TV

Watching movies	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (0 day/week)	39(41.5%)	44(41.5%)	83(41.5%)
High (≥ 1 day/week)	55(58.5%)	62(58.5%)	117(58.5%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=.00000			
D.F.=1			
P-value=1.0000			

(4) Table 5.18 presents a probability value of .1642 which is greater than the significance level of .05. There is no significant relationship between watching soap operas and learning English from TV.

(5) Table 5.19 presents a probability value of 1.0000 which is greater than the significance level of .05. There is no significant relationship between watching movies and learning English from TV.

(6) Table 5.20 presents a probability value of .6209 which is greater than the significance level of .05. There is no significant relationship between watching game

Table 5.20: Watching game shows and learning English from TV

Watching game shows	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (0 day/week)	53(56.4%)	55(51.9%)	108(54.0%)
High (≥ 1 day/week)	41(43.6%)	51(48.1%)	92(46.0%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=0.24465			
D.F.=1			
P-value=.6209			

Table 5.21: Watching talk shows and learning English from TV

Watching talk shows	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (0 day/week)	44(46.8%)	37(34.9%)	81(40.5%)
High (≥ 1 day/week)	50(53.2%)	69(65.1%)	119(59.5%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=2.45598			
D.F.=1			
P-value=.1171			

shows and learning English from TV.

(7) Table 5.21 presents a probability value of .1171 which is greater than the significance level of .05. There is no significant relationship between watching talk shows and learning English from TV.

(8) Table 5.22 presents a probability value of .3621 which is greater than the significance level of .05. There is no significant relationship between watching educational programs and learning English from TV.

From the above eight tables of testing hypothesis II-2, only watching news or

Table 5.22: Watching educational programs and learning English from TV

Watching educational programs	Learning English from TV		
	Low	High	Total
Low (0 day/week)	46(48.9%)	44(41.5%)	90(45.0%)
High (≥ 1 day/week)	48(51.1%)	62(58.5%)	110(55.0%)
Total	94(47.0%)	106(53.0%)	200(100.0%)
Chi-square=.83046			
D.F.=1			
P-value=.3621			

information programs is found to be significantly related to learning English from TV.

Hypothesis II-3

Watching entertainment programs will be found to be significantly related to learning about American customs and lifestyles.

Entertainment programs were defined here as sports, drama/play, soap opera, game show, and talk shows. Tables 5.23 to 5.28 present the results of testing the hypothesis.

(1) Table 5.23 shows the relationship between watching sports programs and learning about American customs and lifestyles. The results present the probability values of .9023 and .3607 which are both greater than the significance level of .05. Thus, there is no significant relationship between watching sports programs and learning about American customs or American lifestyles.

(2) Table 5.24 shows the relationship between watching drama/play programs and learning about American customs and lifestyles. Since .0327 is smaller than

Table 5.23: Watching sports programs and learning American customs and lifestyles

Watching sports programs	Learning American customs		
	Low	High	Total
Low	46(53.5%)	59(51.8%)	105(52.5%)
High	40(46.5%)	55(48.2%)	95(47.5%)
Total	86(43.0%)	114(57.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.01002

D.F.=1

P-value=.9203

Watching sports programs	Learning American lifestyles		
	Low	High	Total
Low	43(57.3%)	62(49.6%)	105(52.5%)
High	32(42.7%)	63(50.4%)	95(47.5%)
Total	75(37.5%)	125(62.5%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.83542

D.F.=1

P-value=.3607

Table 5.24: Watching drama/play programs and learning American customs and lifestyles

Watching drama/play programs	Learning American customs		
	Low	High	Total
Low	44(51.2%)	40(35.1%)	84(42.0%)
High	42(48.8%)	74(64.9%)	116(58.0%)
Total	86(43.0%)	114(57.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square= 4.56102

D.F.=1

P-value=.0327

Watching drama/play programs	Learning American lifestyles		
	Low	High	Total
Low	37(49.3%)	47(37.6%)	84(42.0%)
High	38(50.7%)	78(62.4%)	116(58.0%)
Total	75(37.5%)	125(62.5%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=2.18938

D.F.=1

P-value=.1390

the significance level of .05, there is a significant relationship between watching drama/play programs and learning about American customs. However, since the probability value of .1390 is greater than the significance level of .05, there is no significant relationship between watching drama/play programs and learning about American lifestyles.

(3) Table 5.25 shows the relationship between watching soap operas and learning about American customs and lifestyles. The results present the probability values of .9951 and .6386 which are both greater than the significance level of .05. Thus, there is no significant relationship between watching soap operas and learning about American customs or American lifestyles.

Table 5.25: Watching soap operas and learning American customs and lifestyles

Watching soap operas	Learning American customs		
	Low	High	Total
Low	59(68.6%)	77(67.5%)	136(68.0%)
High	27(31.4%)	37(32.5%)	64(32.0%)
Total	86(43.0%)	114(57.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.00004

D.F.=1

P-value=.9951

Watching soap operas	Learning American lifestyles		
	Low	High	Total
Low	53(70.7%)	83(66.4%)	136(68.0%)
High	22(29.3%)	42(33.6%)	64(32.0%)
Total	75(37.5%)	125(62.5%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.22059

D.F.=1

P-value=.6386

Table 5.26: Watching movies and learning American customs and lifestyles

Watching movies	Learning American customs		
	Low	High	Total
Low	38(44.2%)	45(39.5%)	83(41.5%)
High	48(55.8%)	69(60.5%)	117(58.5%)
Total	86(43.0%)	114(57.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.27528

D.F.=1

P-value=.5998

Watching movies	Learning American lifestyles		
	Low	High	Total
Low	38(50.7%)	45(36.0%)	83(41.5%)
High	37(49.3%)	80(64.0%)	117(58.5%)
Total	75(37.5%)	125(62.5%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=3.57121

D.F.=1

P-value=.0588

(4) Table 5.26 shows the relationship between watching movies and learning about American customs and lifestyles. The results present the probability values of .5998 and .0588 which are both greater than the significance level of .05. Thus, there is no significant relationship between watching movies and learning about American customs or lifestyles. Since the probability value of .0588 is very close to the .05 level of significance, from Table 5.26, the percentage (64 percent) of "high" watching movie group shows that the more time foreign students spend on watching movies on TV, the more they learn about American lifestyles.

(5) Table 5.27 shows the relationship between watching game shows and learning about American customs and lifestyles. The results present the probability values of .7876 and 1.0000 both of which are greater than the significance level of .05. Thus,

Table 5.27: Watching game shows and learning American customs and lifestyles

Watching game shows	Learning American customs		
	Low	High	Total
Low	45(52.3%)	63(55.3%)	108(54.0%)
High	41(47.7%)	51(44.7%)	92(46.0%)
Total	86(43.0%)	114(57.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.07257

D.F.=1

P-value=.7876

Watching game shows	Learning American lifestyles		
	Low	High	Total
Low	40(53.3%)	68(54.4%)	108(54.0%)
High	35(46.7%)	57(45.6%)	92(46.0%)
Total	75(37.5%)	125(62.5%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=.00000

D.F.=1

P-value=1.0000

there is no significant relationship between watching game shows and learning about American customs or American lifestyles.

(6) Table 5.28 shows that the probability values of .0019 and .0156 are both smaller than the significance level of .05. Thus, there is a significant relationship between watching talk shows and learning about American customs or American lifestyles.

From testing Hypothesis II-3, two significant relationships emerge: (1) watching drama/play programs and learning about American customs, and (2) watching talk shows and learning about American customs and lifestyles.

Table 5.28: Watching talk shows and learning American customs and lifestyles

Watching talk shows	Learning American customs		
	Low	High	Total
Low	46(53.5%)	35(30.7%)	81(40.5%)
High	40(46.5%)	79(69.3%)	119(59.5%)
Total	86(43.0%)	114(57.0%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square= 9.63793

D.F.=1

P-value=.0019

Watching talk shows	Learning American lifestyles		
	Low	High	Total
Low	39(52.0%)	42(33.6%)	81(40.5%)
High	36(48.0%)	83(66.4%)	119(59.5%)
Total	75(37.5%)	125(62.5%)	200(100.0%)

Chi-square=5.84431

D.F.=1

P-value=.0156

Hypothesis III

Single foreign students will spend more time than married ones on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Interpersonal communication with Americans includes having contact with Americans, spending time with American friends, and joining American activities.

Table 5.29 shows that there is a significant relationship between marital status and interpersonal communication with Americans, since the probability values of .0000, .0002, .0014 are all smaller than the significance level of .05, and the chi-square values of 17.75236, 14.21111, 10.27084 are all greater than 3.841. Thus, the hypothesis is supported. The results indicate that single foreign students spent more time than married ones on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Hypothesis IV

Foreign students who have an American roommate have more interpersonal communication with Americans than those who have not.

Table 5.30 shows the probability values of .0001, .0000, .0043 which are all smaller than the significance level of .05, and the chi-square values of 15.22705, 19.80849, 8.13916 which are all greater than 3.841. Thus, the hypothesis is supported that there is a significant relationship between living with an American roommate and interpersonal communication with Americans, including having contact with Americans, spending time with American friends, and joining American activities. For instance, 94.1 percent of the students who have an American roommate are in the "high" group of having contact with Americans compared with 5.9 percent of "low"

Table 5.29: Interpersonal communication with Americans and marital status

Interpersonal comm.	Marital Status			Chi-square	P-value
	Married	Single	Total		
Having contact with Americans					
Low	48(65.8%)	43(33.9%)	91(45.5%)		
High	25(34.2%)	84(66.1%)	109(54.5%)		
Total	73(36.5%)	127(63.5%)	200(100.0%)	17.75236	.0000
Spending time with American friends					
Low	52(71.2%)	54(42.5%)	106(53.0%)		
High	21(28.8%)	73(57.5%)	94(47.0%)		
Total	73(36.5%)	127(63.5%)	200(100.0%)	14.21111	.0002
Joining American activities					
Low	49(67.1%)	54(42.5%)	103(51.5%)		
High	24(32.9%)	73(57.5%)	97(48.5%)		
Total	73(36.5%)	127(63.5%)	200(100.0%)	10.27084	.0014

Table 5.30: Interpersonal communication with Americans and American roommate

Interpersonal comm.	American roommate			Chi-square	P-value
	Yes	No	Total		
Having contact with Americans					
Low	2(5.9%)	46(44.7%)	48(35.0%)		
High	32(94.1%)	57(55.3%)	89(65.0%)		
Total	34(24.8%)	103(75.2%)	137(100.0%)	15.22705	.0001
Spending time with American friends					
Low	3(8.8%)	56(54.4%)	59(43.1%)		
High	31(91.2%)	47(45.6%)	78(56.9%)		
Total	34(24.8%)	103(75.2%)	137(100.0%)	19.80849	.0000
Joining American activities					
Low	7(20.6%)	52(50.5%)	59(43.1%)		
High	27(79.4%)	51(49.5%)	78(56.9%)		
Total	34(24.8%)	103(75.2%)	137(100.0%)	8.13916	.0043

group of having contact with Americans. Of the students who have an American roommate 91.2 percent are in the "high" group of spending time with American friends, but only 8.8 percent are in the "low" group of spending time with American friends.

Hypothesis V

Foreign students who are undergraduate students have more interpersonal communication with Americans than those who are graduate students.

Table 5.31 presents findings regarding the relationship between interpersonal

communication with Americans and a student's academic level. It is found that those who are undergraduate students tend to have contact with Americans more (P-value=.0004) and spend more time with American friends (P-value=.0013). There are 74.6 percent of the undergraduate students in the "high" category of having contact with Americans, whereas only 46.1 percent of the graduate students are in this "high" category. Moreover, about eighty-three percent of the undergraduate students are in the "high" category of spending time with American friends, but only 58.2 percent of the graduate students are in this "high" category. There are significant relationships between academic level and having contact with Americans, and spending time with American friends. However, the relationship is not significant for academic level and joining American activities (P-value=.6934).

Hypothesis VI

Hypothesis VI-1

Foreign students who are from English-speaking countries will spend more time on interpersonal communication with Americans than those who are from non-English speaking countries.

Table 5.32 presents findings regarding the relationship between interpersonal communication with Americans and English as the first language. It is found that those who are from English-speaking countries tend to have more contact with Americans (P-value=.0162), spend more time with American friends (P-value=.0012), and join more American activities (P-value=.0252) than those who are from non-English speaking countries. Of the students from English-speaking countries 77.8 percent are in the "high" category of having contact with Americans, whereas only 50.9 percent of students from non-English speaking countries are in this "high" category. The

Table 5.31: Interpersonal communication with Americans and academic level

Interpersonal comm.	Academic level			Chi-square	P-value
	Undergrad.	Graduate	Total		
Having contact with Americans					
Low	15(25.4%)	76(53.9%)	91(45.5%)		
High	44(74.6%)	65(46.1%)	109(54.5%)		
Total	59(29.5%)	141(70.5%)	200(100.0%)	12.47843	.0004
Spending time with American friends					
Low	10(16.9%)	59(41.8%)	69(34.5%)		
High	49(83.1%)	82(58.2%)	131(65.5%)		
Total	59(29.5%)	141(70.5%)	200(100.0%)	10.33265	.0013
Joining American activities					
Low	12(20.3%)	34(24.1%)	46(23.0%)		
High	47(79.7%)	107(75.9%)	154(77.0%)		
Total	59(29.5%)	141(70.5%)	200(100.0%)	.15542	.6934

Table 5.32: Interpersonal communication with Americans and English as the 1st language

Interpersonal comm.	English as the 1st language			Chi-square	P-value
	No	Yes	Total		
Having contact with Americans					
Low	85(49.1%)	6(22.2%)	91(45.5%)		
High	88(50.9%)	21(77.8%)	109(54.5%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	5.77855	.0162
Spending time with American friends					
Low	100(57.8%)	6(22.2%)	106(53.0%)		
High	73(42.2%)	21(77.8%)	94(47.0%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	10.48452	.0012
Joining American activities					
Low	95(54.9%)	8(29.6%)	103(51.5%)		
High	78(45.1%)	17(70.4%)	97(48.5%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	5.00798	.0252

hypothesis is supported since the relationships are statistically significant between English as the first language and having contact with Americans, spending time with American friends, and joining American activities.

Hypothesis VI-2

Foreign students who are from non-English speaking countries will spend more time on using mass media than those who are from English-speaking countries.

Mass media identified here are American mass media, including TV, radio, American newspapers, and American magazines.

Table 5.33 presents findings regarding the relationship between mass media use and English as the first language. Probability values of .1036, .6427, .7487, and .4873 were found which are all greater than the significance level of .05. The hypothesis is not supported, and there is no significant relationship between any mass media use and English as the first language.

Hypothesis VI-3

There is a significant relationship between interpersonal communication with Americans and mass media use of foreign students.

Examination of this hypothesis is based upon Pearson correlation coefficients first to find whether positive or negative relationships exist between each selected variable in interpersonal communication with Americans and mass media use. The correlation coefficient matrix is presented in Table 5.34

From Table 5.34, we can find that there are three most significant correlations between interpersonal communication with Americans and reading American magazines. The correlation coefficient (r) between having contact with Americans and reading American magazines is $-.5330$, r between spending time with American friends and reading American magazines is $-.4747$, and r between joining American activities and reading American magazines is $-.4747$. However, There is no significant correlation coefficient (r) between mass media use of TV, radio, American newspapers and interpersonal communication with Americans. According to the results, there is a significant negative correlation coefficient (r) between spending time reading American magazines and interpersonal communication with Americans.

Table 5.35 shows that only reading American magazines is significantly related to learning about the American environment, including learning English, shopping infor-

Table 5.33: Mass media use and English as the 1st language

Mass media use	English as the 1st language			Chi-square	P-value
	No	Yes	Total		
Viewing TV					
Low	89(51.4%)	19(70.4%)	108(54.0%)		
High	84(48.6%)	8(29.6%)	92(46.0%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	2.64875	.1036
Listening to radio					
Low	97(56.1%)	17(63.0%)	114(57.0%)		
High	76(43.9%)	10(37.0%)	86(43.0%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	.21524	.6427
Reading American newspapers					
Low	118(68.2%)	17(63.0%)	135(67.5%)		
High	55(31.8%)	10(37.0%)	65(32.5%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	.10259	.7487
Reading American magazines					
Low	106(61.3%)	19(70.4%)	125(62.5%)		
High	67(38.7%)	8(29.6%)	75(37.5%)		
Total	173(86.5%)	27(13.5%)	200(100.0%)	.48241	.4873

Table 5.34: Pearson correlation for variables in interpersonal communication with Americans and mass media use

Variables ^a	Q2	Q12	Q22	Q30	Q42	Q43	Q44
Q2							
Q12	.2357						
Q22	.2655	.2902					
Q30	.0000	.2833	.4267				
Q42	.1759	-.0888	-.0109	-.5330			
Q43	.1291	-.0365	-.0374	-.4747	.9342		
Q44	.0000	-.1643	-.0935	-.4747	.7980	.8600	

^aQ2=time spent with TV viewing; Q12=time spent with listening to radio; Q22=time spent with reading American newspapers; Q30=time spent with reading American magazines; Q42=have contact with Americans; Q43=time spent with American friends; Q44=joining American activities.

mation, travel information, American customs, and American lifestyles. Based on the findings from testing Hypothesis I-4, Hypothesis III, Hypothesis V, and Hypothesis VI-1, it was found that some demographic variables will affect interpersonal communication of foreign students with Americans. The demographic variables cover such aspects as foreign students being from non-English speaking countries, being married, being graduate students, and staying more than 30 months in the United States. Results from Table 5.36 show probability values of .0053, .0151, .0151 which are all smaller than the significance level of .05. Thus, there is a significant relationship between reading American magazines and interpersonal communication with Americans after controlling for the aforementioned demographic variables. Ninety percent of the foreign students, who are in the "high" group of reading American magazines are found in the "low" interpersonal communication-with-Americans group, but only 10 percent of the "high" readers are also "high" interpersonal communicators. The finding proves that there is a significant negative relationship between spending time

Table 5.35: Learning information about the American environment and mass media use

Learning inf. about the U.S.		Mass media use			
		TV	Radio	A. news	A. mag.
English	Chi-square	6.17259	.73512	5.59030	16.01786
	P-value	.0130	.3912	.0181	.0001
Shopping	Chi-square	2.10269	2.74995	4.11168	5.70543
	P-vale	.1470	.0973	.0426	.0169
Travel	Chi-square	4.99542	2.76206	3.77239	8.99773
	P-vale	.0260	.0965	.0521	.0027
Customs	Chi-square	.76899	1.47520	.17061	5.80987
	P-vale	.3805	.2245	.6796	.0159
Lifestyles	Chi-square	.34353	1.02786	1.24710	10.45911
	P-vale	.5578	.3107	.2641	.0012

on reading American magazines and interpersonal communication with Americans.

Due to the aforementioned demographic variables, length of stay in the United States, marital status, academic level, and English as the first language, foreign students who spend more time on reading American magazines to learn about American environment will spend less time on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Table 5.36: Interpersonal communication with Americans and reading American magazines

Interpersonal comm.	Reading American magazines			Chi-square	P-value
	Low	High	Total		
Having contact with Americans					
Low	6(40.0%)	18(90.0%)	24(68.6%)		
High	9(60.0%)	2(10.0%)	11(31.4%)		
Total	15(42.9%)	20(57.1%)	35(100.0%)	7.75844	.0053
Spending time with American friends					
Low	7(46.7%)	18(90.0%)	25(71.4%)		
High	8(53.3%)	2(10.0%)	10(28.6%)		
Total	15(42.9%)	20(57.1%)	35(100.0%)	5.90625	.0151
Joining American activities					
Low	7(46.7%)	18(90.0%)	25(71.4%)		
High	8(53.3%)	2(10.0%)	10(28.6%)		
Total	15(42.9%)	20(57.1%)	35(100.0%)	5.90625	.0151

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION

1. The findings of hypothesis I showed that time spent with TV viewing increases with length of stay in the United States, and time spent with reading American magazines increases with length of stay in the United States.

According to the concept of media dependency described in Chapter 3, media dependency is related to a number of motives for attending to the media. That is, the more motivated persons are in seeking gratifications, the more they will come to depend on that medium (Rubin and Windahl, 1982). The results show that the longer foreign students stay in the United States, the more time they spend on TV viewing or reading American magazines. The evidence shows that the more they get gratifications from TV and American magazine consumption, the more they depend on these two media. Thus, those foreign students who perceive that television and American magazines present accurate reflections of life should also be most likely to seek information about life from such media.

2. The findings of Hypothesis II showed that for foreign students TV is the main source of learning about the American environment. Foreign students spent more time with TV (an average of 112.8 minutes per day) than with the other media—radio, American magazines, and American newspapers (an average of less than 30 minutes per day).

TV consumption can be viewed as motivated by individuals' needs, wants, and requirements. In the literature review described in Chapter 2, Seyfi (1979) mentioned that TV was a good source to learn about English and American surroundings due to its audio-visual advantage. This may explain why TV is a main source for foreign students.

The other findings of Hypothesis II showed that news or information program consumption is related to learning English, drama/play program consumption is related to learning about American customs, and talk show consumption is related to learning both American customs and lifestyles.

Since gratifications are related to program choice in different ways, specific gratification sought is related to viewing specific types of programs. As mentioned earlier, English proficiency is related to adjustment to the new environment for foreign students. Accordingly, news or information programs can provide good opportunities for them to learn English. It may imply that foreign students' motivations are stimulated by the new environment, they need valuable information sources to help themselves solve problems of adjusting to the new environment.

Entertainment content of mass media—drama/play and talk shows—can provide a description of the host environment and offer a person a conversation piece serving as interaction with other people whom one meets in daily life in like circumstance. Thus foreign students can connect with American daily life via viewing such programs for them to a feeling of affiliating with their host society.

3. Findings of Hypothesis III showed that single foreign students will spend more time than married ones on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Single foreign students spend more time than married ones on interpersonal com-

munication, including having contact with Americans, spending time with American friends, and joining American activities. This finding is probably due to the married students spending more time with their spouses or their families, whereas single students have more time to interact with Americans.

4. Findings of Hypothesis IV showed that foreign students who have an American roommate have more interpersonal communication with Americans than those who do not.

Table 5.30 showed that of the foreign students who live with an American roommate 94.1 percent are in the "high" group of having contact with Americans, and only 5.9 percent are in the "low" group; 91.2 percent are in the "high" group of spending time with American friends, and only 8.8 percent are in the "low" group; and 79.4 percent are in the "high" group of joining American activities, 20.6 percent are in the "low" group. There are significant differences between the percentage of the "high" and "low" groups of interpersonal communication with Americans, which implies that living with an American roommate is an important variable affecting foreign students' interpersonal communication with Americans.

5. Findings of Hypothesis V showed that foreign students who are undergraduate students have more interpersonal communication with Americans. They spend more time having contact with Americans and American friends than those who are graduate students.

Some of the research reviewed (e.g., Sewell and Davidsen, 1961) in Chapter 2 indicated that undergraduate students have more social contacts with host nationals. The results of the hypothesis provide evidence to support the previous research findings.

6. Findings of hypothesis VI showed that foreign students who are from English-speaking countries will spend more time on interpersonal communication than those who are from non-English speaking countries.

Since English proficiency is an effective instrument to communicate with Americans, for foreign students who are from English-speaking countries it is easier to communicate with Americans without language barrier than for those who are from non-English speaking countries. In discussing the communication-acculturation process, it was hypothesized that the greater the language competence, the greater would be the interpersonal communication with members of the host society. Accordingly, the results of this study also support this position.

Findings also showed that there is no significant difference between foreign students either from English-speaking countries or from non-English speaking countries and spending time on mass media use. It implies that foreign students' exposure on mass media does not matter whether English is used as the first language or not, their exposure to mass media is due to different needs or motivations, such as learning information or being entertained.

In the results of testing Hypothesis VI-3, a significant negative relationship was found between spending time reading American magazines and interpersonal communication with Americans after controlling for some demographic variables, including whether foreign students are from non-English speaking countries, married, graduate students, and have been in the United States more than 30 months. Thus, foreign students with these demographic characteristics will spend less time on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Findings of Hypothesis I-4 showed that time spent with reading American mag-

azines increases with the length of stay in the United States. Table 5.35 showed that American magazines are found to relate to learning English, shopping information, travel information, American customs, and American lifestyles. Thus, foreign students can, through reading American magazines, absorb the different kinds of American environment information they need. The literature review in Chapter 2 had shown that Rosengren and Windahl (1972) had found a relationship between low potential for social interaction and parasocial interaction with media content. Therefore, for those who prefer reading American magazines to get to know their host environment they will spend less time on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Based on the results of testing the hypotheses, foreign students appear to be willing to have contact with their host environment either via mass media or via interpersonal communication with Americans.

CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusion

This study considered a number of different variables in an attempt to explore a relationship between mass media use and interpersonal communication of foreign students. The findings suggest that both mass media and interpersonal communication with Americans are important channels for foreign students to have contact with their host environment.

TV is found as a main source of learning about the American environment for foreign students regardless of language use. Consumption of different kinds of TV programs such as drama/play programs and talk shows can make them perceive America.

Furthermore, some demographic variables affect the communication behaviors of foreign students. Length of stay in the United States is found to be an important variable affecting foreign students' mass media use. Marital status, whether they have an American roommate, academic level, and English as the first language are found to be important variables affecting foreign students' interpersonal communication with Americans.

Foreign students who are from non-English speaking countries, are married, are graduate students, and have been in the United States for more than 30 months

prefer reading American magazines to know about their new environment and will spend less time on interpersonal communication with Americans.

Suggestions for Future Research

Due to limited time and money, the sample was limited to 210 foreign student respondents who were enrolled at ISU in the spring of 1990. Due to this limitation, the findings may not accurately reflect the complete situation. Another limitation stems from the generalization of the study. Because the subjects were selected from the foreign student population in ISU, the results may not be generalized beyond ISU and subsequent research should take this limitation into account.

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, the following suggestions are recommended for future investigation.

Additional variables should be included regarding the respondents. Data collected on the respondents should include: previous training in the English language; previous international experience or experience in American culture; plans on completion of educational goals (to return to home country or remain in the United States).

The research instrument might be administered to a larger population from other universities with a more detailed questionnaire design.

Futhermore, regarding communication behaviors experienced by foreign students, future researchers might explore how foreign students interact with community members in their host environment.

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APPENDIX QUESTIONNAIRE OF TELEPHONE SURVEY

Telephone Survey:

Hello, my name is Shu-Hua Meng, I am a graduate student in the Department of Journalism and Mass Communication. You have been randomly selected to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to learn about interpersonal communication and mass media use by foreign students. The survey will take about 15 minutes. Please give your answers to the following questions. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Your name will not be associated in any way with your responses. May I begin?

Part I:

I would like you to give me some information about your use of television.

1. Do you own a Television?

No.....0

Yes.....1

2. About how many hours per day do you watch television?

none.....0 (SKIP TO Q.11)

less than 1 hour.....1

1 to less than 2 hours.....2

2 to less than 3 hours.....3

3 to less than 4 hours.....4

4 to less than 5 hours.....5

5 to less than 6 hours.....6

6 to less than 7 hours.....7

7 to less than 8 hours.....8

more than 8 hours.....9

3. How many days per week do you watch the following kinds of programs on television?

news/information	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
sports	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
drama/play	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
soap opera	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
movie	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
game show	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
talk show	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
educational program	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

Telephone Survey:

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3 to less than 4 hours.....4

4 to less than 5 hours.....5

5 to less than 6 hours.....6

6 to less than 7 hours.....7

7 to less than 8 hours.....8

more than 8 hours.....9

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sports	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
drama/play	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
soap opera	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
movie	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
game show	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
talk show	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
educational program	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

DIRECTIONS:

I will ask you some questions with answers from range 0 to 5 represented the degree from "none" to "a great deal" of learning about the American environment. Please choose one of these numbers to answer the questions.

4. How much English would you say you have learned by watching TV?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

5. How much do you learn about shopping information by watching TV?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

6. How much do you learn about travel or tourist information of America by watching TV?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

7. How much do you learn about American customs by watching TV?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

8. How much do you learn about American lifestyles by watching TV?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

9. What TV station do you usually watch? _____

10. What program do you watch most often? _____

Part II:

I'd like you to give me some information about your use of radio.

11. Do you own a radio?

No.....0

Yes.....1

12. About how many minutes per day do you listen to radio?

none.....0 (SKIP TO Q.20)

less than 30 minutes.....1

30 to 60 minutes.....2

61 to 90 minutes.....3

more than 90 minutes....4

13. How many days per week do you listen to the following kinds of programs radio?

news/information	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
music	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
educational program	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
entertainment program	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

(READ DIRECTIONS)

14. How much English would you say you have learned by listening to radio?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

15. How much do you learn about shopping information by listening to radio?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

16. How much do you learn about travel or tourist information of America by listening to radio?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

17. How much do you learn about American customs by listening to radio?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

18. How much do you learn about American lifestyles by listening to radio?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

19. What radio station do you usually listen to? _____

Part III:

I'd like you to give me some information about your use of print media.

20. Do you subscribe to American daily or weekly newspapers?

No.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 22)

Yes.....1

21. What American newspapers do you subscribe to? _____

22. About how many minutes per day do you read American daily or weekly newspapers?

none.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 28)

less than 30 minutes....1

30 to 60 minutes.....2

61 to 90 minutes.....3

more than 90 minutes..4

(READ DIRECTIONS)

23. How much English would you say you have learned by reading American daily or weekly newspapers?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

24. How much do you learn about shopping information by reading American daily or weekly newspapers?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

25. How much do you learn about travel or tourist information of America by reading American daily or weekly newspapers?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

26. How much do you learn about American customs by reading American daily or weekly newspapers?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

27. How much do you learn about American lifestyles by reading American daily or weekly newspapers?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

28. Do you subscribe to American weekly or monthly magazines?

No.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 30)

Yes.....1

29. What American magazines do you subscribe to? -----

30. About how many minutes per day do you read American weekly or monthly magazines?

none.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 36)

less than 30 minutes....1

30 to 60 minutes.....2

61 to 90 minutes.....3

more than 90 minutes..4

(READ DIRECTIONS)

31. How much English would you say you have learned by reading American weekly or monthly magazines?

None

A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

32. How much do you learn about shopping information by reading American weekly or monthly magazines?

None

A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

33. How much do you learn about travel or tourist information of America by reading American weekly or monthly magazines?

None

A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

34. How much do you learn about American customs by reading American weekly or monthly magazines?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

35. How much do you learn about American lifestyles by reading American weekly or monthly magazines?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

36. Do you subscribe to daily or weekly newspapers from your home country?

No.....0

Yes.....1

37. About how many minutes per day do you read daily or weekly newspapers from your home country?

none.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 39)

less than 30 minutes....1

30 to 60 minutes.....2

61 to 90 minutes.....3

more than 90 minutes..4

38. What kinds of information do you read most?

politics.....1

entertainment.....2

job opportunity.....3

others.....4

39. Do you subscribe to weekly or monthly magazines from your home country?

No.....0

Yes.....1

40. About how many minutes per day do you spend on reading weekly or monthly magazines from your home country?

none.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 42)

less than 30 minutes....1

30 to 60 minutes.....2

61 to 90 minutes.....3

more than 90 minutes..4

41. What kinds of information do you read most?

politics.....1

entertainment.....2

job opportunity.....3

others.....4

PART IV:

I'd like you to give me some information about the people you talk with.

(READ DIRECTIONS)

42. Besides classroom meetings, how much contact would you say you have with Americans: (IF "NONE", SKIP TO Q. 49)

None

A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

43. How much time do you spend with American friends?

None

A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

44. How often would you say you have joined American parties or social activities:

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

45. Do you have an American host family?

No.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 47)

Yes.....1

46. How often would you say you have contact with your American host family?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

47. Do you have an American English conversation partner?

No.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 49)

Yes.....1

48. How often would you say you have contact with your American English conversation partner?

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

49. Besides classroom meetings, how much contact would you say you have with people from your own country: (IF "NONE", SKIP TO Q. 51)

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

50. How often would you say you have joined parties or social activities of your own country:

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

51. Besides classroom meetings, how much contact would you say you have with people from a country other than your own and not from America: (IF "NONE, SKIP TO Q. 53)

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

52. How often would you say you have joined parties or social activities of people from foreign countries but not of Americans':

None A great deal

0 1 2 3 4 5

53. How do you grade your English ability now?

very poor	poor	fair	good	very good
1	2	3	4	5

Part V:

Finally I'd like to ask you for some background information.

54. What is your home country? _____

55. Is English used as the first language in your country?

No.....0
 Yes.....1

56. How long have you been in the U.S.? -----
 57. What department are you in? -----
 58. What degree are you working toward?

Bachelor's.....1
 Master's.....2
 Ph.D.....3
 Other.....4

59. Sex:

Female.....1
 Male.....2

60. Where do you live?

Dormitory.....1
 On-campus family housing..2
 Off campus apt/house.....3
 Other.....4

61. Marital Status:

Married.....1
 Single.....2 (SKIP TO Q. 64)

62. Did your husband/wife come with you to Ames?

No.....0 (SKIP TO Q. 64)
 Yes.....1

63. Is your husband/wife a student at ISU?

No.....0
 Yes.....1 (SKIP TO THE END)

64. Where is your roommate from?

American.....1

Home country.....2

Foreign country.....3

No roommate.....4

That's all the questions I have. Thank you very much for your time.